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ABSTRACT

The work of Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard on life-cycle leadership was compared and contrasted to three studies on group phase theories. The studies on group phases were conducted by Robert Bales and Fred Strodtbeck in 1951, Thomas Scheidel and Laura Crowell in 1964, and B. Aubrey Fisher in 1970. The two theoretical approaches were found to have many dissimilarities. First, life-cycle theory is directed more at business and academic leaders, who may be leaders of groups too large to be considered "small," while the three phase studies were directed at specific small groups. Second, two of the phase studies were directed solely at task performance, while life-cycle theory rests on the trade-off between task and interpersonal relationship functions of leaders. Third, the three small group studies are not as specifically related to leaders, as is the life-cycle theory. Finally, life-cycle theory rests upon the important concept of increasing maturity of group members, while group theories have not taken maturity into account. Despite these contrasts, the two theoretical approaches have some similarities, especially when their four stages of development are compared. The shift from task orientation to greater emphasis on interpersonal relations in life-cycle leadership theory corresponds with phases of group decision making, which include understanding the task, the evaluative stages in which members moderate conflicting views, and final group consensus. (RL)

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LIFE CYCLE LEADERSHIP THEORY VS. THEORY ON THE PHASES OF SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION:

COMPARISONS, CONTRASTS, AND EXAMPLES

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Life-Cycle Leadership Theory vs. Theory on the Phases of Small Group Discussion

Comparisons, Contrasts, and Examples

As one small group professor once said, "The fun thing about studying small groups is that you can always disprove the existing theories." Such would seem to be the case when it comes to the study done on phases in small group discussion. This creates rather a problem, at first glance, when one attempts to compare these theories with Hersey and Blanchard's life-cycle theory. However, the problem can be solved to an extent by concentrating on a few phase studies. Thus, in order to answer the question as to whether life-cycle leadership theory is related to the theory on the phases of small group discussion, I will look at Hersey and Blanchard's ideas by critically comparing and contrasting them to the group phase theories as studied in "Phases in Group Problem-Solving," by Robert F. Bales and Fred L. Strodtbeck in 1951, "Idea Development in Small Discussion Groups," by Thomas M. Scheidel and Laura Crowell in 1964, and, finally, "Decision Emergence: Phases in Group Decision-Making," by B. Aubrey Fisher in 1970. These three were chosen because of their relative similarity in design and thus their great comparability.[1] They will be compared to Hersey and Blanchard's life cycle theory as articulated in their 1969 article, "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership."[2]

RATIONALE FOR STUDY

The comparison of life cycle theory with small group phase theory is important for several reasons. First, life cycle theory provides goals whereby leaders can gradually adapt behaviors over a period of time. In a later text, Hersey and Blanchard relabel life cycle theory "the situational theory of leadership." Phase studies of purposive small group discussions have provided information as to how group members do adapt to situations over time. Even though group phase studies are generally taken over a short period

of time while life cycle theory considers a group's development over extended time, any correlations between the phases in these two bodies of theory would tell us a great deal about how leaders in general can adapt their behaviors appropriately to meet the dynamic needs of their organizations. Second, small groups for decision making and leaders play an integral role in our everyday lives. Finally, Hersey and Blanchard have pointed out that, "On all sides there is a continual search for persons who have the necessary ability to enable them to lead effectively. This shortage of effective leadership is not confined to business, but is evident in the lack of able administrators in government, education, foundations, churches, and every other form of organization."[3] Thus, the following questions become all the more relevant: How accurate are the small-group discussion phase theories? What are the key differences and similarities in the assumptions underlying them? What are the similarities between these and life cycle leadership theory? If there are significant similarities, then what implications do they have for today's leader?

BACKGROUND OF THE HERSEY AND BLANCHARD STUDY

The research behind the life cycle theory came out of the often-asked question, "Is there a 'best' style of leadership?" However, the researchers came to agree with Eugene E. Jennings, who stated, "Fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders."[4] Thus, Hersey and Blanchard came to disavow the "traits" and "styles" approaches to leadership.

Nonetheless, the two models upon which Hersey and Blanchard were to base their ideas were indeed styles models. The first came from leadership studies conducted by the Ohio State University Bureau of Business Research in 1945.[5] Following the autocratic vs. democratic, authoritarian va. equalitarian, and production-oriented vs. employee-oriented dichotomies from the styles school,

the Ohio State researchers "found that leadership styles vary considerably from leader to leader."[6] They graphed the leadership styles along two axes, one representing increasing "consideration" and the other representing increasing preoccupation with "initiating structure." (Appendix 1). In 1964, this scheme was nominally changed by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton in what they termed the "Managerial Grid."[7] There, the axis of "concern for people" replaced the axis "consideration," while the axis "concern for production" replaced "initiating structure." Furthermore, they rated these characteristics on a scale from one to nine, and by naming the five leader styles as team (high concern for production, high concern for people) and impoverished (low concern for both), among intermediary labels for the others, they added the notion, implicit as it may be, that the better leaders have high concern for people and high concern for production (Appendix 2).

Hersey and Blanchard continue and cite several sources, including one which had reviewed 25 studies, which stated that there is no ideal leader style, and that leader style, in order to be effective, should vary with the particular situation in which the leader finds himself/herself.[8] They also redrew Blake and Mouton's graph, adding an effectiveness dimension and relabeling the axes "relationships dimension" and "task dimension," respectively. Appendix 3 illustrates this nominal change. Importantly, Hersey and Blanchard revised this into their own model after finding that "an effective leader must be able to diagnose the demands of the environment and then either adapt his leader style to fit these demands, or develop the means to change some or all of the other variables."[9] At this point, the question remained, "<u>How</u> can a manager or leader adapt to the situation?"

To the authors, the answer lied in the life cycle theory. As implied by the term "life cycle," the important dimension of maturity was added to the

scheme. "According to life cycle theory, as the level of maturity of one's followers continues to increase, appropriate leader behavior not only requires less and less structure (task) but also less and less socio-emotional support (relationships)."[10] Life cycle theory rests upon the assumption that at the beginning of a task or a group, the followers are immature and that it is appropriate for the manager or leader to promote task behaviors, as a parent would closely supervise a child. The analogy continues that as a child grows older, the parent should generally exert more relationships behavior as the pendulum swings away from authoritarianism. As the child, or group, becomes yet more mature, more familiar with the task, there may still be a need for emotional support, but less authoritarianism from the parent or leader. Finally, as the worker is satisfied with his or her knowledge of his or her job, it is for the leader, like the parent, not to worry about promoting either the task or the relationships dimension since both of these are, at this point, taking care of themselves (Appendix 4).

The key to understanding and applying this theory rests upon the leader's understanding of several important assumptions. First, there is an assumption that, to some extent, the "followers" are new at the task or immature in the beginning. However, this might not be true is one happens to be the President as leader, or, to use Hersey and Blanchard's example, the head of a team of researchers, both leaders being leaders of initially experienced and mature people. However, it is noted that life cycle may be related to a particular project, and since maturity refers to psychological age, people might be psychologically young at the beginning of certain tasks.[11] Secondly, there is the assumption that people mature as time goes by. However, it is up to the leader (parent) to realize when exceptions take place, and thus when to revert to behavior appropriate at an earlier state. Finally, for life cycle theory to work in practice, it is emphasized that it is essential for the

leader to adapt gradually, or else the money the corporation spends sending that leader to a relations workshop might backfire from built-up employee expectations being shaken.[12] While offering no real panacea to the leadership problem, Hersey and Blanchard's study ends with the warning, "The key is often reinforcing positively 'successive approximations.' By successive approximations we mean behavior which comes closer and closer to the supervisor's expectations of good performance. Similar to the child learning some new behavior, a manager should not expect high levels of performance at the outset."[13]

BACKGROUND OF THE PHASES IN SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION STUDIES

As noted earlier, there have been numerous schemes for studying the phases and the development of ideas in small group discussion.[14] Of these, three studies were chosen because of their close relationship with one another in terms of design and their pertinence to the understanding of the relationship of phases in small group discussion to the Hersey and Blanchard study. A history and survey will be given for each of these, then they will be compared and contrasted to one another before being critically compared to life cycle.

In 1951, Robert F. Bales and Fred L. Strodtbeck published the article, Phases in Group Problem-Solving," wherein they theorized that the group problem-solving process involved three phases which they named "orientation," "evaluation," and "control."[15] They sought to prove that the discussion in small groups followed this pattern by monitoring twelve types of comments which took place within each phase. After finishing the 22 tapes, they spliced each one into thirds of discussion (thirds divided by words, not time) and recorded the types of comments made. The 22 groups in the study were composed of "normal" adults who had some degree of initial uncertainty as to how the task was to be solved, yet they had also been given information relevant to solving the problem. Also, the group members were placed under the constraint

"that there be both pressure for a group decision and the expectation of future joint action."[16] Appendices 5 and 6 show the expectations of the study and the results of the study, which are explained below.

Although 14 of the 22 cases in the study did not bear out that the responses indicated that these phases manifest themselves at the time of the discussions that the researchers predicted they would, the composite totals of all of the comments classified for all of the discussions bore the researchers out. In other words, the first phase had more orientation type comments with respect to the task than evaluative statements or control statements. The second phase had more evaluative statements, as the participatns gained an understanding of the issues and were now debating the issues. While the control statements were fewer in the final stage than the evaluative and orientation statements, the number of control statements went up. Control statements were defined as statements of the members' control over each other and over the common environment.[17] Furthermore, as the task increased, the group members' comments became increasingly positive to a much greater extent than they became increasingly negative.

There were several drawbacks to this study. First, as it admits, there was a small sample of only 22 groups. Second, the groups were composed of people discussing either chess (experienced), chess (inexperienced but given an hour to think and a handbook), and group theory. One eight-man group planned a thesis.[18] To say the least, some of these situations have little relationship to either the academic or the "real world." These experimenters carefully chose the people for this experiment and laid down some very stringent and specific constraints, such as the uniform constraint that all the groups come up with a solution upon which they will take action in a uniform fashion later. Such a setup would not only seem to bias the comments toward the confirming positive at the end because of the experimental nature of the study and the pressure to "impress" the experimenter by seeming satisfied with the experiment, but

would not seem to be generalizable to "real-world" situations where such constraints vary, especially in light of the small sample size and small range of the topics discussed. The report itself concludes that a better design would be to "attempt to randomize in some fashion the kinds of external conditions involved, and to deal with large aggregates of cases."[19] The main contribution of Bales and Strodtbeck is that they did invent a category structure of discussion comments whereby future researchers could study phases in the small group discussion process.

Such research was to be conducted by Thomas M. Scheidel and Laura Crowell a decade later and published in their 1964 article, "Idea Development In Small Discussion Groups." Whereas Bales and Strodtbeck used 12 categories of statements reflecting two task dimensions (question-type responses and answer-type responses) and two social-emotional dimensions (positive reactions and negative reactions), Scheidel and Crowell used five dimensions they perceived to be related to task. Their article states, "While we realize that both elements enter into any comprehensive analysis of the group process, we have attempted to limit ourselves for the present to the logical considerations of idea development."[20] The dimensions studied thus became assertion-question, information-inference, substantive-procedural, volunteered-requested, and description (initiation, restatement, clarification, substantiation, extension, simple response to request, positive modification, negative modification, stated acceptance-approval, stated rejection-disapproval, synthesis, summary). Singnificantly, this study signaled a trend away from studying the relations dimensions of small group discussion, and, like the Fisher study, focused more on the task, at least as claimed in the study.

The study consisted of five groups of students from "a course devoted to developing understanding and interaction and communication in small group situations."[21] Unlike the previous study, there was an assigned leader for each group to lead each of the five groups, of uniform size, in a

discussion on the status of a newspaper. Also different was the fact that students took part in this as part of a course, and that they had no constraints to come up with a decision as in the previous study. However, they did receive information before the experiment.

There were three conclusions to this study. First, that "there is a great degree of freedom of choice in responses in group discussion" shows that members do have choices as leaders.[22] Second, it affirmed the hypothesis that orientation came first by stating, "If rejection came, it did not come before the idea had some measure of development."[23] This also reaffirms that evaluation follows orientation. Finally, the report claims its greatest contribution to be the introduction of unpredictability of responses, or "a new paradigm to illustrate the process of idea development in group discussion," or "a spiraling model for group problem solving."[24] This represents the continuing anchoring of consensus ideas in the group process, and marked a departure from past linear models.

Drawbacks do exist in this model, though. First, that the emotional, "relationships" dimension is de-emphasized will made this less comparable to life cycle theory. Second, if the Bales and Strodtbeck experiment was not large and diverse enough with 22 groups, then the Scheidel and Crowell study was certainly not large enough to be conclusive with five groups composed solely of students taking a course in group theory. Finally, one has to wonder how 22 categories of responses could have possibly been coded accurately, with all of the subjective judgements involved. While there are some similarities between the 1951 and 1964 studies, their conclusions, to say the least, "must be taken with a grain of salt."

The most recent pertinent study in the literature surveyed was entitled "Decision Emergence: Phases in Group Decision-Making," published in 1970 by Aubrey S. Fisher. Joseph E. McGraph and Irwin Altman have stated in 1966 that "there is relatively little replication in the use of variables across

studies and in tests of specific relationships" when refering to small group research.[25] Furthermore, little attention had been paid to the behavior of groups rather than outcome. As Fisher stated, "Only Scheidel and Crowell observed the verbal behavior related specifically to task accomplishment--notably decision-making."[26] Unlike the previous studies, however, Fisher was to divide his phases along the time dimension. He continued, "The purpose of the present investigation, then, was to discover the nature of the interaction process across time leading to group consensus on decision-making tasks."[27]

In selecting the ten groups for his study, Fisher did not control for any dissimilarities as to sex, age, relationships, or size. He used seven criteria to select groups for observation, using these methods such that he could focus solely on the task dimension of small group discussion:

1. The group's goal is to achieve consensus on decisions.
2. The group's interaction is primarily verbal.
3. The group operates in a developing or emergent context.
4. The entire history of the group is available for study.
5. A written record of the group's task performance if available.
6. The group successfully accomplished its task.
7. The group is not formed within a classroom context.[28]

Fisher defined a unit of interaction as "a given instance of the performance of a task function on a decision proposal regardless of its length or intensity."[29] His categories were three dimensional and simpler to tabulate. These categories of responses included Dimension One (Seeking vs. Asserted), Dimension Two (interpretive, substantiation, clarification, modification, summary, agreement, which was later truncated to exclude modification and summary due to the negligible number of responses tabulated under that category) and Dimension

Three (favorable, unfavorable, and ambiguous).[30]

The major findings of this study are summarized in the following paragraph:

> A consistent four-phase pattern emerged from a study of the proportional fluctuation of interaction units favorable, unfavorable, and ambiguous toward the decision proposals. In the early stages of discussion, both favorable attitudes and ambiguous attitudes were expressed with greater frequency than unfavorable attitudes. Then, as the proportion of ambiguous units declined, unfavorable units increased to surpass the proportional frequency of ambiguous ones. In the third phase, unfavorable units declined while the proportional frequency of ambiguous units rose above the frequency of unfavorable ones. In the final phase, favorable units rose sharply, and both ambiguous and unfavorable units declined sharply.[31]

There was great clarification and agreement in the first phase, indicating that within the first phase was the need to get acquainted, oriented, and to tentatively express attitudes. Thus, like in the Bales and Strodtbeck study, orientation was the name given the first phase, though in this study, the naming was done after the results were in.[32]

The second phase differs somewhat from the previous schemes in that, given the above information, Fisher chose to label it the "conflict" stage since "Not only are comments in the second phase less ambiguous, they are also expressed more tenaciously."[33] After members had become oriented with the task, they became polarized about how they felt about the task. Fisher's reinforcement schedule of this phase inferred that coalitions had been formed, indicating polarization.[34] Although previous studies did not mention what form of evaluation took place in the second phase, Fisher's phase would seem to fit in because conflict and polarization do indicate that evaluation of a kind is occoring.

Fisher termed his third and fourth phases "emergence" and "reinforcement," respectively. These would seem to correspond to the "control" phase of Bales and Strodtbeck and to the point of discussion where ideas become reinforced according to Scheidel and Crowell. Fisher's third phase shows

increasing degrees of favorable responses following favorable responses, indicating to an extent the building of these consensus ideas. While ambiguity served the role of orientation in the first phase, it served as a reflection of "modified dissent" in the third phase.[35] Finally, during the last phase, there is a higher degree of positive interpretation. "Thus, the argument form appears in phase four to characteristically favor the consensus decisions."[36] Fisher concludes that his study proved that (1) groups could be studied without regard to socio-emotional consideration and (2) groups progress toward decisions over time "despite the presence of social variables idiosyncratic to specific groups."[37]

SUMMARY OF THE THREE GROUP PHASE THEORIES AND COMPARISON TO LIFE CYCLE THEORY

On the surface, there would appear to be many diffenences in the three studies on phases in small group discussion. The number of subjects, the attributes of the subjects, the nature of the task, and the design and methodology did vary greatly from study to study. However, it is most intriguing to note that, to one extent or another, all three studies, taken over a 20-year time span, agreed that orientation is the first stage of the nature of comments made in small group discussion. Furthermore, although the 1964 study dies not address time phases per se, it reaffirms the 1951 findings that an evaluation and a control phase did exist in that order, for the most part, after the orientation phase. The 1970 study clearly showed that conflict (stage two) was not unlike the evaluation state of the earlier studies, in that conflict in itself connotes that evaluation, and, as Fisher noted, strong evaluation was found to follow orientation. Finally, the third and fourth phases of Fisher's model, which he determined after the study, correlate strongly to the control phase of the 1951

study and the building of ideas phase implied by the 1964 study. In all three studies, there is positive reinforcement of the consensus toward the end of the discussion process. Beginning in 1964, though, it was recognized this was not a linear process. This discovery is very important when one attempts to compare these three phases, which I shall call orientation, evaluation and re-evaluation, and reinforcement, to life-cycle theory. When taken together, these three studies take on greater meaning.

When one compares life cycle to the phases of small group interaction, again there are many dissimilarities that stand out. First, life cycle theory is directed more at business and academic leaders, who may be leaders of groups too large to be considered "small;" the three phase studies were directed at specific small groups. Second, whereas the 1964 and 1970 small group studies were directed solely at task performance, life-cycle theory rests on the trade-off (if it can be so termed) between task and relations functions of leaders. Third, the three small group studies are not as specifically related to leaders as is the life cycle theory. Finally, life-cycle theory rests upon the important concept of increasing maturity of group members. Group theories, on the other hand, did not take maturity into account.

Despite these contrasts, these theories have some similarities. Hersey and Blanchard stressed that for individual tasks, the life-cycle theory might hold for people as mature as research and development workers. It can also be argued that the 1970 studies did not ignore the relations element completely in that they continued to tabulate the evaluative responses. As noted earlier, Fisher mentioned the tenacity of some arguements and spoke of group unity, two terms more than tangentially related to the relations dimension. Third, the increasing

moderation and ultimate unity in consensus certainly has some relationship to the increasing maturity that takes place when a group goes through the life-cycle theorized by Hersey and Blanchard.

Thus, a comparison of the behavior in each stage of each theory is in order. In life cycle, the group leader with a new task begins with high stress on task and little on relationships. In group phase theory, the members concentrate on understanding the task, if these studies are correct.

In life cycle, the second phase is characterized by continued high emphasis on task, but greater emphasis on relations. This would appear to be an appropriate leadership style in a situation where the group phase theories held, because it is important the evaluation part of the second pahse not disintegrate into disruptive conflict.

In life cycle, the third phase is characterized by de-emphasis on task and continued emphasis on relations on the leader's part. Again, this would seem appropriate for the re-evaluation period of the second phase of the group theories; as Fisher noted, the reason for ambiguity is not a misunderstanding of the task but a sense of moderated conflict. In other words, the group is too mature to need to be held to the task elements, but conflict is still there and should not become disruptive.

Finally, the fourth phase of the life cycle, low task and high relationship would seem to be an appropriate leadership style in a group that has reached consensus, just as the groups in the three group phase studies did. Now that underlying similarities of these studies have been shown, the question remains: What are the implications for today's leader?

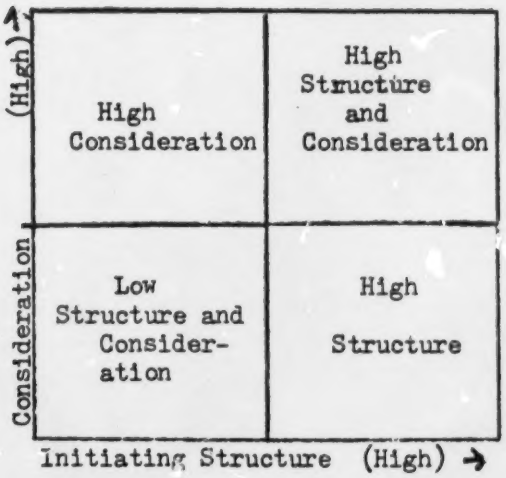
CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

While the theories of small group discussion seem both inconsistent among themselves and with the life cycle theory of leadership, there are some strong similarities which warrant further study. Although the three theories seem weak individually, the consistency over the long run of some of the findings tends to mutually strengthen those findings. Research using a larger sample would provide an interesting test of those findings.

It would also be interesting to study these theories with respect to a rhetorical movement that consists of small groups. By doing so, a better understanding of how leaders not only affect the groups they lead, but how leadership works to affect society at large can be obtained.

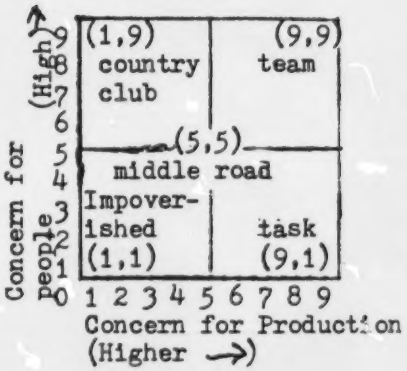
APPENDIX 1

The Ohio State Leadership Quadrants



APPENDIX 2

The Managerial Grid Leadership Styles

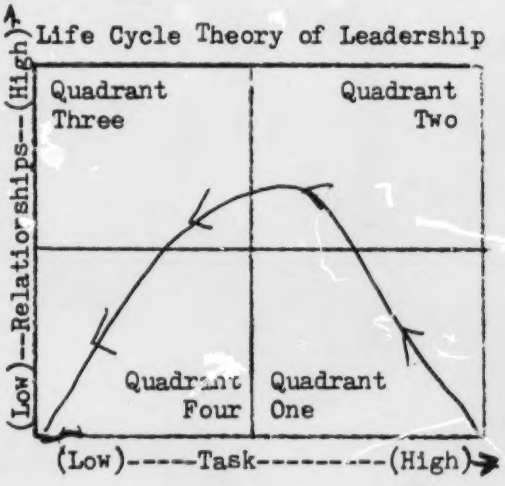


APPENDIX 3

Adding an Effectiveness Dimension

APPENDIX 4

Life Cycle Theory of Leadership



APPENDIX 5

EXPECTED PHASE IN WHICH FREQUENCIES OF ACTS BY TYPE WILL BE HIGH, INTERMEDIATE, AND LOW UNDER CONDITIONS OF THE FULL-FLEDGED PROBLEM

Type of Act	High	Intermediate	Low
Orientation	First	Middle	Final
Evaluation	Middle	Final	First
Control	Final	Middle	First
Negative	Final	Middle	First
Positive	Final	Middle	First

APPENDIX 6

ACTS BY TYPE AND PHASE, TOTAL OF 22 CASES

Type of Act	Phase			Total
	First	Middle	Final	
Orientation	1,668	1,170	916	3,574
Evaluation	1,550	1,792	1,656	4,998
Control	285	364	429	1,078
Negative	275	374	408	1,057
Positive	984	1,058	1,361	3,403
Total*	4,762	4,758	4,770	14,290

*The totals in phases are not quite equal due to the fact that the techniques employed to distribute the extra acts into total acts of a session made the total not divisible by three.

Notes

[1]Ralph M Stogdill, Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research (New York: The Free Press, 1974).

[2]Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1977), p. 160.

[3]Hersey and Blanchard, Management, p. 83.

[4]Hersey and Blanchard, Management, p. 85.

[5]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership," Training and Development Journal (May 1969), 26.

[6]Hersey and Blanchard, 'Life Cycle," 26.

[7]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle," 26.

[8]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle," 28.

[9]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle," 28.

[10]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle," 29.

[11]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle," 30.

[12]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle," 32.

[13]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle," 34.

[14]Other papers pertinent to the understanding of small group phases include David E. Berlew, "Leadership and Organizational Excitement," California Management Review 27, No. 2 (1974), 21-30; Wendell French and Cecil H. Bell, Jr., Organization Development: Behavioral Science Inventions for Organizational Improvement (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1973); John W. Gardner, "The Antileadership Vaccine," Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation of New York, 1965; E. P. Hollander, "Style, Structure, and Selling in Organizational Leadership," Administrative Science Quarterly 15, No. 3 (1971), 1-9; Robert J. House, "A Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness," Administrative Science Quarterly 15, No. 3 (1970), 321-338; and Harold H. Kelly and John W. Thibaut," Experimental Studies in the Group Problem Solving Process," Handbook of Social Psychology, 1954, 738-741.

[15]Robert F. Bales and Fred L. Strodtbeck, "Phases in Group Problem Solving," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 96 (1951), 485-495.

[16]Bales and Strodtbeck, 485.

[17]Bales and Strodtbeck, 487.

[18]Bales and Strodtbeck, 487.

[19]Bales and Strodtbeck, 493.

[20]Thomas M. Scheidel and Laura Crowell, "Idea Development in Small Discussion Groups,"Quarterly Journal of Speech 50 (1964), 141.

[21]Scheidel and Crowell, 142.

[22]Scheidel and Crowell, 143.

[23]Scheidel and Crowell, 144.

[24]Scheidel and Crowell, 145.

[25]Joseph E. McGrath and Irwin Altman, Small Group Research: A Synthesis and Critique of the Field (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1966), p. 68.

[26]Aubrey B. Fisher, "Decision Emergence: Phases in Group Decision-Making," Speech Monographs 38 (1970), p. 53.

[27]Fisher, p. 54.

[28]Fisher, p. 55.

[29]Fisher, p. 55.

[30]Fisher, p. 55.

[31]Fisher, p. 56.

[32]Fisher, p. 61.

[33]Fisher, p. 61.

[34]Fisher, p. 62.

[35]Fisher, p. 63.

[36]Fisher, p. 64.

[37]Fisher, p. 65.

[38]Hersey and Blanchard, "Life Cycle," p. 34.

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